Finding spiritual meaning [in a chronic illness] is welcoming my lungs into the wholeness of my individual. My lungs are not “the other,” but all is part of the whole. Spiritual meaning is about accepting and loving myself as a whole individual. It’s honoring the self and body. Life is a journey.

—Mary, living with pulmonary hypertension

Introduction

An individual living with chronic illness experiences many complex emotional feelings that may include frustration, depression, or anger (Lorig et al., 2012). These feelings can lead an individual to feel overwhelmed with the self-management tasks and skills he or she needs to learn to effectively manage the condition. Spirituality is one source of comfort and support that can help an individual cope with the stress and anxiety of chronic illness. People can use spirituality to find meaning in chronic illness, which in turn may help them interpret their illness in a positive manner (Lorig et al., 2012).

Consideration of spirituality as a supportive intervention in chronic illness leads to many questions. What are the spiritual care needs of individuals with chronic illness? What is known about nurses and spiritual nursing care? How can nurses meet the spiritual needs of their patients with chronic illness? This chapter addresses these questions and identifies the role of spirituality in the management of chronic illness. Nursing and healthcare organizations mandate integration of spiritual needs in care plans. The Code of ethics for nurses with interpretive statements by the American Nurses Association (2015) includes statements about spiritual care needs. For example, Provision 1.2 of the Code of Ethics states that nurses should consider the “religious or spiritual beliefs” when planning health care for individuals or populations (p. 1). The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and The Joint Commission both state that health care should respect cultural beliefs, values, and practices (Joint Commission, 2014). National surveys indicate that spiritual beliefs are important to...
Americans. Two national Gallup polls of 1,025 participants each aged 18 and older conducted in 2016 found that 79–89% of U.S. respondents believed in God (Gallup, 2016). In 1944, for comparison, a Gallup poll reported that 96% of Americans believed in God, while in 2011, 92% of respondents believed in God (Gallup, 2011). These surveys indicate that while the number of people acknowledging a belief in God is declining, a majority of Americans continue to believe in God.

Spiritual beliefs are of particular importance to older Americans, who are most likely to be affected by chronic illness. Using data from the 2014 Religious Landscape Study, the Pew Research Center (2016) constructed a model based on 100 people that describes the religious affiliations of individuals aged 18 and older in the United States. The model showed that while 8 in 100 individuals aged 18–29 were unaffiliated with a religion, only 2 in 100 individuals aged 65 and older were unaffiliated with a religious group. Further, 9 in 100 people aged 30–49 were unaffiliated with a religious group, and only 4 in 100 people aged 50–64 were unaffiliated. In the same overall model, 71 of 100 people would be Christians, 2 would be Jewish, and 1 would be Muslim.

Spirituality can be an important source of support in chronic illness. A study of the use of complementary and alternative medicine (CAM) in U.S. adults, using data from the 2002 National Health Interview Survey (NHIS), found that 43% of adults used prayer for health purposes (Barnes, Powell-Griner, McFann, & Nahin, 2004). The five most commonly used CAM therapies were prayer for one’s health (43.0%), intercessory prayer (24.4%), natural products (18.9%), deep breathing exercises (11.6%), and participation in a prayer group (9.6%). Conditions treated with CAM included chronic pain, anxiety, and depression. Women, black adults, and Asian adults were most likely to use CAM therapy that included prayer for health reasons. Rates of using mind–body therapies that included prayer for health ranged from 56.3% to 66% in people aged 60–85 and older. Excluding prayer, usage rates of mind–body therapies in older adults ranged from 6.4% in the 85 years and older age group to 14.4% in the 60–69 age group, suggesting a high use of prayer in the oldest age group with the highest rate of chronic illness.

Information on the use of prayer as a health intervention is important for healthcare professionals. Simply put, healthcare professionals need to have more knowledge regarding the importance of spirituality to their patients. Unfortunately, the 2007 NHIS survey did not include prayer as a CAM therapy (Barnes, Bloom, & Nahin, 2008). The 2012 NHIS survey included “centering prayer” as one component of meditation. Meditation includes multiple techniques: mantra meditation (e.g., transcendental meditation); mindfulness meditation (e.g., Zen Buddhist meditation, mindfulness-based cognitive therapy); and spiritual meditation (e.g., centering prayer and contemplative meditation). Thus, prayer, as it was measured in the 2002 NHIS, cannot be compared with meditation and centering prayer in the NHIS of 2012 (Pergegoy, Clarke, Jones, Stussman, & Nahin, 2014).

More recently, a 2015 survey by the Pew Research Center found 55% of Americans pray every day (Pew Research Center, 2015). Among people aged 65 and older, 65% reported praying daily compared to 41% for adults aged 18–29.

Holistic nursing care includes care of an individual’s body, mind, and spirit. While a cure is usually not possible for persons living with a chronic illness, opportunities for healing, growth, and wholeness are available (Mariano, 2009). Spirituality involves multiple ways of knowing, including cognitive, experiential, intuitive, aesthetic, and an inner sense or knowing. Spiritual practices can help individuals find purpose and meaning, as well as connection with others and the transcendent, within their illness experience (Burkhardt & Nagai-Jacobson, 2009).

Spirituality and Health

Research suggests a strong link between spirituality and health with both positive and negative effects on health. Schnall et al. (2010) examined
relationships between religiosity and cardiovascular outcomes in a sample of 92,395 women aged 50–79 years who were enrolled in the Women's Health Initiative Observational Study. Their results indicated that religious affiliation, frequency of religious service attendance, and drawing strength and comfort from religion were linked to a decreased all-cause mortality rate. The risk reduction ranged from 10% to 20%. The results also indicated that religiosity did not protect against coronary heart disease (CHD) events. The authors suggested that the decrease in all-cause mortality rate was not related to a decrease in CHD events, and that other unknown variables were involved. The mechanism by which spirituality affects health is unclear.

A 2015 systematic review of 16 studies examined the role of prayer in illness (Jors, Büssing, Hvidt, & Baumann, 2015). Study participant groups ranged from 10 to 360 with most participants suffering from chronic disease, including cancer, heart disease, heart problems, sickle cell disease, human immunodeficiency virus infection, and hepatitis C. Specifically, the researchers examined why people prayed in illness, the topics of their prayers, and how they prayed. The results found that disease-centered prayer was most common involving disease improvement, decision making and management, or finding meaning or something positive in the illness. Lamentation prayer was used least often by participants. Some participants prayed for others including family, friends, and physicians. Some prayers focused on God's presence or God-centered prayer. Participants used both formal (memorized prayers such as the rosary) and informal or conversational prayers. The researchers concluded that people pray not only for healing but also to help them find meaning in their illness experience. A clinical implication of the study was that prayer can be a source of coping and strength as well as a guide for decision making.

Psychotic disorders can contain delusions or fixed beliefs that involve religious themes (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). In 2002, Andrea Yates drowned her five children because of her religious convictions about Satan, herself, and her children (CNN.com/US, 2007). Yates was subsequently diagnosed with severe depression with schizophrenic symptoms. Cases have been reported of people who performed eye enucleations after reading Matthew 5:29–30; these Bible verses instruct an individual to pluck out an eye if it provokes sin (Koenig, King, & Carson, 2012). The New Testament's Book of Revelation was part of the philosophical background and motives for Charles Manson and his "Family," who murdered actress Sharon Tate and six other people in California in 1969 (Bugliosi, 1975).

More knowledge is needed about the type of faith healing that occurs at religious shrines such as that located in Lourdes, France (Koenig et al., 2012). In The Nun's Story (Hulme, 1956), Sister William remarked to Sister Luke that the real cure of Lourdes was the peace and happiness of faith that came from the pilgrimage.

Knowledge about the attitudes of healthcare professionals toward the effects of spirituality on health is also important in the provision of spiritual health care. Many nurses believe in the beneficial effects of spirituality for individuals. Grant (2004) surveyed 299 nurses at a southwestern U.S. university teaching hospital. The results indicated that 100% of the nurses believed that spirituality could provide individuals with inner peace, as well as strength to cope (98%), physical relaxation (97%), self-awareness (96%), and a greater sense of connection to others (94%). The study also found that nurses who regarded themselves as spiritual generally thought that spirituality could help individuals.

A nurse's own spiritual background can affect spiritual care. In a qualitative study of spiritual care offered by nurse practitioners (NPs) in primary healthcare settings, Carron and Cumbie (2011) found that participants often spoke about the relationship between the spirituality of the NP and using spirituality in practice. Statements by participants included the following:

_IF YOU HAVE A FIRM RELIGIOUS BELief OR YOU FEEL COMFORTABLE WITH YOUR OWN SPIRITUALITY, THEN IT IS GOING TO BE EASIER FOR YOU TO BRING THAT UP TO A PATIENT, A FRIEND, WHOEVER._
Spirituality and religion are coping strategies that can help patients and families manage the stress of illness (Glanz & Schwartz, 2008). Chronic illness can result in many losses, including loss of health, independence, vigor, ability to work, and social relationships, and unmet goals and challenges (Koenig et al., 2012). In their seminal work Stress, appraisal, and coping, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) stated that psychological stress was "a particular relationship between the individual and the environment that is appraised by the individual as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being" (p. 19). Thus, some individuals might find a particular incident stressful, while other individuals might view the same incident as nonstressful. The difference lies in the person's appraisal or significance of what is happening to him or her (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Existential beliefs, such as in God or the order of the universe, can help people find meaning and maintain hope in stressful events (Glanz & Schwartz, 2008; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Use of spirituality can lead to either adaptive or maladaptive coping. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) noted that beliefs in a higher power, such as in God, can sustain people and help them cope with very challenging situations—a response known as adaptive coping. Conversely, spiritual maladaptive coping can occur when an individual thinks that a stressful situation or illness is punishment from a punitive God.

A study by Thuné-Boyle, Stygall, Keshtgar, Davidson, and Newman (2013) suggests there is maladaptive religious/spiritual coping in women with a new diagnosis of breast cancer. A sample of 155 women in the United Kingdom, with a mean age of 55.7 years, 44.8% married, and 72.1% believing in the existence of God, completed several spiritual measures including a religious coping tool. The authors found that negative religious coping, such as feeling punished or abandoned by God, was significantly associated with anxiety and depression, which could, in turn affect the woman's adjustment to her diagnosis. Thuné-Boyle et al. suggested that a spiritual assessment could identify areas of spiritual distress that might represent barriers to illness adjustment.

Positive religious coping, however, was demonstrated in a study of individuals with advanced cancer in the United States. Tarakeshwar et al. (2006) examined religious coping in a sample of 170 individuals with advanced cancer, defined by distant metastasis and failure of first-line chemotherapy. The mean age of the sample was 57.46 years and 77.6% of the sample had health insurance. Religion was important or somewhat important to 85.9% of the study participants. Assessment of several spiritual measures indicated that use of positive religious coping was related to better quality of life (QOL). However, positive religious coping was also associated with more physical symptoms. The authors noted that while religious coping can influence QOL, individuals with better QOL might also use more religious resources to cope with their illness.

Also, people with more physical symptoms might use religious coping for support and strength. The study further suggested that use of negative religious coping was associated with decreased quality of life. Finally, the authors suggested that a spiritual assessment with minimal questions could ascertain the importance of religion to individuals, the influence of religion on coping and understanding of their illness, and whether the individual's religious needs were met.

In summary, spirituality influences health through mechanisms that are positive and life-giving, but also in negative ways. It is essential for healthcare professionals to assess the coping skills and the effects of the spiritual views of patients, caregivers, and families living with chronic illness.

**Historical Perspectives of Spirituality in Chronic Illness**

Nursing and spirituality have a long history of interrelationship. Florence Nightingale, for
example, clearly viewed nursing from a spiritual perspective. At age 16, she experienced a call from God to His service, although the nature of the service was not specified (Macrae, 2001). In a small work entitled “Una and the Lion,” Nightingale wrote that nursing was concerned with caring for the “living body—the temple of God’s spirit” (Nightingale, 1868/2010, p. 6). In *Notes on nursing* (1860/1969), she stated that the purpose of nursing was “to put the patient in the best position for nature (i.e., God) to act upon him” (p. 133).

Spirituality has been integrated into health care since the earliest known times. Shamanism is practiced by all indigenous groups worldwide and involves working with the forces of nature and spirits who can bring illness or death (Barnum, 2003). In medieval times, health care was often provided within monasteries (Barnum, 2011). In the United States, many early schools of nursing were affiliated with a religious institution (O’Brien, 2014).

During the latter part of the 20th century, nursing practice began to incorporate more scientific knowledge as the basis of patient care (O’Brien, 2014). Specifically, nursing adopted the biopsychosocial model of health care and eliminated the emphasis on spirituality and spiritual nursing practices (Barnum, 2011). More recently, shifts regarding spirituality in health care have again occurred, with spirituality drawing renewed attention (Barnum, 2011; O’Brien, 2014). In 1961, the inaugural edition of the *Journal of Religion and Health* appeared. The editor, George Christian Anderson (1961), stated that understanding and a multidisciplinary approach to health care was needed; no single group possessed the whole truth. Anderson recognized that a person’s philosophy of life contributed to total health; consequently, the interaction among social, psychological, organic, and spiritual factors needed further examination and understanding.

In the 1990s, more research studies examining the relationships among spirituality, religion, and health were published. This trend has continued to grow with the establishment of spiritual institutions such as the Center for Spirituality, Theology, and Health at Duke University (http://www.spiritualityandhealth.duke.edu/). The Center, founded in 1998, promotes dialogue among researchers, clinicians, theologians, and others interested in the connection between spirituality and health.

Many national health organizations that deal with chronic illness have made information about spirituality and health available on their websites. For example, information on the role of spirituality as a support resource can be found on the following websites: National Center for Complementary and Integrative Health (https://nccih.nih.gov/), Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC; http://www.cdc.gov), American Heart Association (http://www.heart.org), and American Cancer Society (http://www.cancer.org).

**Definitions**

To provide effective spiritual care to people with chronic illness, it is important to distinguish between terms used in the literature such as *spiritual* or *spirituality* and *religion* or *religiosity*. These terms can be difficult to define owing to the wide variety of religious and spiritual practices, as well as the evolving meaning of the terms over time.

The term *religion* is derived from the Latin word *religare*, meaning “to tie back or restrain” (Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary, 2017). Religion can be practiced in a community or alone, but it generally includes shared beliefs and practices (Burkhardt & Nagai-Jacobson, 2009). Religion usually concerns the relationship between an individual and the transcendent, whether this is God, Allah, Buddha, Dao, a higher power, or ultimate truth or reality. The term “religion” can also be accompanied by negative connotations, including issues related to rigidity, hypocrisy, and church–state separation (Koenig et al., 2012).

*Spirituality* is more difficult to define because of the lack of accepted characteristics and its evolving nature (Koenig et al., 2012). The word *spirit* is derived from the Latin word *spiritus,*
meaning “breath” (Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary, 2017). Many people express their spirituality within the structure of their religious denomination (Burkhardt & Nagai-Jacobson, 2009). Chittister (2001) identified a clear distinction between religion and spirituality: “religion is about ritual, about morals, about systems of thought . . . spirituality is about coming to consciousness of the sacred. . . . It is in that consciousness that an individual comes to wholeness” (p. 16). Burkhardt and Nagai-Jacobson (2009) wrote, “Spirituality is the essence of who we are and how.”

Chittister (2001) states:

The truly spiritual individual . . . knows that spirituality is concerned with how to live a full life, not an empty one. Real spirituality is life illumined by a compelling search for wholeness. It is contemplation in the eye of chaos. It is life lived to the full. . . . spirituality is the individual search for the divine within us all. (pp. 13–14, 61)

Spirituality is defined by Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary (2017) as being concerned with spirit, sacred matters, religious values, or the supernatural. O’Brien (2014) conceptualized spirituality as having two dimensions: (1) a spiritual connection with God or the transcendent and (2) a religious component consisting of an individual’s faith practices, which might or might not be based in an organized religious tradition. Religion and spirituality both share a belief in the transcendent, but spirituality often involves a path of discovery, questioning, belief, devotion, and surrender that goes beyond organized religion. In contrast, secularists, agnostics, and atheists do not acknowledge a connection with the transcendent (Koenig et al., 2012).

Spiritual well-being is another commonly encountered term in spirituality research and practice. This term is not found in Merriam-Webster’s online dictionary (2017). Rather, spiritual well-being is defined by common threads in the literature that include a connection to God or a higher power (religious well-being) and having a purpose and meaning in life (existential well-being) (Ellison, 1983).

The Functional Assessment of Chronic Illness Therapy—Spiritual Well-Being Scale (FACIT-Sp), a commonly used spiritual assessment tool, measures spiritual well-being with two subscales that reflect this view (Peterman, Fitchett, Brady, Hernandez, & Cella, 2002). The first subscale is labeled “meaning and peace” and measures meaning, peace, and purpose in life. The second subscale, labeled “faith,” measures the relationship between spiritual/religious beliefs and illness.

The terms spirituality and healing are related. The words heal, whole, and holy stem from the same Old English word hal, meaning “whole” (Burkhardt & Nagai-Jacobson, 2009; Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary, 2017). Burkhardt and Nagai-Jacobson (2009) write:

By its nature, healing is a spiritual process that attends to the wholeness of a person. The work of healing requires recognition of the spiritual dimension of each person, including the healer, and awareness that spirituality permeates every encounter. (p. 623)

In summary, healthcare professionals need to understand the common links between religion and spirituality. It is an oversimplification of the differences between terms to label “religion” as based on the practices and beliefs of a particular organization and “spirituality” as more individual. A fundamental link between religion and spirituality is that both involve the sacred as expressed through God, the transcendent, or one’s interpretation of the ultimate. The search for the sacred in life is the journey and destination of many people.

**Spiritual Context in Nursing Theories**

Many nursing theories have a spiritual context. Interventions and programs that influence health behavior, such as lifestyle changes, are
most effective when they are based on a theory of health behavior (Glanz, Rimer, & Viswanath, 2008). Theories help explain human behavior that may be facilitating or blocking chronic illness management. A theory can be defined as a “a set of interrelated concepts, definitions, and propositions that present a systematic view of events or situations by specifying relations among variables to explain or predict the events or situations” (Glanz et al., 2008, p. 26). Nursing theories address areas of interest and are “patterns that guide the thinking about, being, and doing of nursing” (Smith & Parker, 2010, p. 8).

Although it is not the goal of this chapter to review the spiritual context of every nursing theory, a few examples are presented to emphasize the relevance of spirituality to nursing theory and nursing care. Although Florence Nightingale is not considered a nursing theorist according to modern standards, her vision of nursing continues to influence modern nursing (Dunphy, 2010). Spirituality played a major role in Nightingale’s individual development and her views on health and nursing (Dossey, 2000). Specifically, she equated service to God with care of humanity (Calabria & Macrae, 1994). According to Nightingale, scientific truths were God’s laws, and by discovering these laws of truth in areas such as sanitation, health could be promoted (Calabria & Macrae, 1994; Dunphy, 2010).

Watson’s Theory of Human Caring (2008) was based on the concept of caring science, which Watson proposed was the “essence of nursing and the foundational disciplinary core of the profession” (p. 17). She described caring as including spiritual ways of knowing and being. Many of the 10 core Caritas Processes in her theory, for example, integrate caring with honoring belief systems, connection to an individual’s spirit, creation of a healing environment, and openness to the spiritual dimension of the human experience of life and death. Watson built on Nightingale’s ideas that the body is often able to heal itself if placed in the right environment. A Caritas nurse incorporates an individual’s spiritual beliefs to promote healing, strength, and wholeness.

The Roy adaptation model assumes that people find support in each other, the community, and a supreme power (Roy, 2009). According to this model, a supreme power or God is manifested in the diversity of the world. Roy’s nursing model focuses on the role of nurses in helping people to adapt to changing circumstances. Roy (2009) believes that knowledge about an individual’s spirituality helps one understand that individual’s values and beliefs. These beliefs and values, in turn, influence an individual’s response to environmental factors. In particular, spirituality helps define an individual’s concept of self, which could influence health behavior.

In a similar manner, other nursing theories emphasize the role of an individual’s spirituality in shaping attitudes and responses to illness. The Neuman systems model, for example, focuses on the role of an individual’s spirituality in shaping an individual’s response to environmental stressors with lines of defense and resistance (Aylward, 2010). Leininger’s theory of culture care diversity and universality also includes the importance of religious and spiritual factors that can affect the cultural response of people to illness (Leininger & McFarland, 2010). Rogers’s theory of the science of unitary human beings, however, does not include a specific spiritual component. Rogers believed that people were unified human energy fields that could not be subdivided into systems such as a spiritual system (Butcher & Malinski, 2010). In contrast, Cowling (2004), in his description of unitary appreciative inquiry that built on Rogers’s science of unitary human beings, included the value of physical, mental, and spiritual data to explain the “wholeness of human existence” (p. 279) and create the “inherent pattern of unity that is human life and the fullness of human experience” (p. 279).

O’Brien (2014) developed a conceptual model for a middle-range theory of spiritual well-being in illness (FIGURE 5-1). O’Brien believed that people have a spiritual nature, in addition to their physical and psychosocial nature, that is capable of transcending or accepting illness or disability. O’Brien’s theory emphasizes the ability to find
practice nurses (NPs/APNs) in adult primary care settings (FIGURE 5-2). Their model emphasizes the nurse–patient relationship. As the NP and patient develop a relationship, the NP conducts a spiritual assessment of the patient's spiritual supports. Based on this patient assessment and the NP/APN's own spiritual knowledge and background, the practitioner develops and integrates spiritual interventions into the relationship with the patient to help the patient manage life challenges. The three interconnecting circles in Carron and Cumbie's model (see Figure 5-2) represent the NP/APN, patient, and spirit. The circles are dotted to reflect an evolving dynamic between these three entities.

Nursing theory influences all levels of care in chronic illness management, including nursing care, education, administration, and knowledge development, as well as providing structure for nursing practice, research, and scholarship (Smith & Parker, 2010). Nursing theories support the concept that an individual is a holistic combination of body, mind, and spirit. Nurses caring for people with chronic illness need to be...
Benson et al. (2006) measured the effects of certainty and uncertainty of receiving intercessory prayer with three groups of patients undergoing cardiac bypass (coronary artery bypass graft [CABG]) surgery. Group 1 was composed of randomly assigned patients who received intercessory prayer after being told they might or might not receive intercessory prayer. Group 2 did not receive intercessory prayer after being told they might or might not receive intercessory prayer. The intercessory prayers included words such as, have a successful surgery, a quick recovery and a recovery without complications. Group 3 received intercessory prayer after being told they would receive intercessory prayer. Primary outcomes of the study included postoperative complications within 30 days of the surgery; secondary outcomes were major health events and a 30-day mortality rate. The results indicated postoperative complications occurred in 52% of Group 1, 51% of Group 2, and 59% of Group 3. Major events and 30-day mortality rate were similar across the three groups. Intercessory prayer was provided for 14 days beginning the familiar with the various nursing theories and their use in providing optimal nursing care for people living with chronic illness.

## Issues

A discussion of spirituality and health includes many complex issues. Some of these issues, such as the positive and negative aspects of spirituality for health, have been discussed in earlier sections of this chapter. Other significant issues in spirituality and health include measurement and outcomes.

A primary concern in spirituality research is measurement. What is being measured, and are these appropriate items to be measuring? For example, it is relatively easy to measure the number and frequency of people who attend a faith-based service on a regular or intermittent basis. It is not as easy to measure the effects of prayer for an individual, commonly known as intercessory prayer. Which outcomes should be measured? Pain relief? Spiritual well-being? Complication rate after surgery?

Benson et al. (2006) measured the effects of certainty and uncertainty of receiving intercessory prayer with three groups of patients undergoing cardiac bypass (coronary artery bypass graft [CABG]) surgery. Group 1 was composed of randomly assigned patients who received intercessory prayer after being told they might or might not receive intercessory prayer. Group 2 did not receive intercessory prayer after being told they might or might not receive intercessory prayer. The intercessory prayers included words such as, have a successful surgery, a quick recovery and a recovery without complications. Group 3 received intercessory prayer after being told they would receive intercessory prayer. Primary outcomes of the study included postoperative complications within 30 days of the surgery; secondary outcomes were major health events and a 30-day mortality rate. The results indicated postoperative complications occurred in 52% of Group 1, 51% of Group 2, and 59% of Group 3. Major events and 30-day mortality rate were similar across the three groups. Intercessory prayer was provided for 14 days beginning the
night before each participant’s surgery. Benson and colleagues (2006) concluded that intercessory prayer did not affect the chances of experiencing a complication-free recovery, and the certainty of receiving intercessory prayer resulted in a higher incidence of complications. Benson et al. (2006) also noted that the increase in complications in Group 3 could have been due to chance.

Carron, Hart, and Naumann (2006) questioned the role of prayer as a primary medical treatment as in the Benson study. Carron et al. proposed that the purpose of prayer was to support the inner spiritual life of an individual; thus, prayer could serve as an adjunct coping resource in a challenging life situation such as surgery. For example, Dunn and Horgas (2000) reported that 96% of a sample of 50 community-dwelling elders used prayer as a coping resource for stress.

In the Benson et al. (2006) study, it was difficult to control the prayer intervention, as almost all participants in the three groups believed that friends, relatives, and their religious communities would be praying for them. Benson et al. also noted that the participants could have also been praying for themselves. Nonstudy prayer could not be controlled.

A Cochrane review examined the role of intercessory prayer (Roberts, Ahmed, Hall, & Davison, 2009). Ten intercessory prayer studies with 7,646 patients were analyzed for outcomes including death, clinical state, rehospitalization, quality of life, and satisfaction with treatment. The authors concluded that, based on the evidence, a recommendation could not be made either for or against the use of intercessory prayer, because the majority of studies did not support a positive effect from intercessory prayer. This review again illustrates the complexity of conducting spiritual studies, particularly in regard to measured outcomes.

Another issue in spirituality measurement is the challenge of measuring spiritual care provided by nurses. What is nursing spiritual care, and what should be measured? Hubbell, Woodward, Barksdale-Brown, and Parker (2006) examined the spiritual care practices of a sample of 65 NPs in North Carolina. To assess use of spiritual care by NPs in their practice, the NPs completed a modified Nurse Practitioner Spiritual Perspective Survey (NPSCPS) questionnaire based on the Oncology Nurse Spiritual Care Perspective Scale (Taylor, Highfield, & Amenta, 1994). The results indicated that 73% of the participants only rarely or occasionally provided spiritual care to their patients. The most commonly reported spiritual activities were referral to clergy (54%), encouraging a patient to pray (46%), and talking about a spiritual topic with a patient (39%). Notably, NPs defined spiritual care as listening, talking, holding hands, using music, and caring—a range that may not have been fully captured by the survey.

Other issues with spiritual care include the definition of spiritual care. Carron and Cumbie (2011) found that older patients equated spiritual care with a kind and caring attitude on the part of the nurse. However, a nurse practitioner who was interviewed for the study believed that a kind and caring attitude was part of nursing and that spiritual care depended on your definition. Spiritual care is not standardized, and while nurses believe in the value of spiritual care, they are uncertain when and how to implement spiritual interventions (Grant, 2004). Nursing needs to develop a consensus on the meaning of spiritual care and the manner in which it is to be implemented.

**Spiritual Assessment**

A spiritual assessment can provide clues regarding the influence of a person's spiritual views on his or her health. Healthcare professionals often establish long-term relationships with individuals and families living with chronic illness. A spiritual assessment can be helpful in developing spiritual care interventions.

Prior to conducting a spiritual assessment, Anandarajah and Hight (2001) described several prerequisite factors that could enhance a spiritual assessment—namely, spiritual self-understanding and self-care, relationship, and timing. First, a healthcare professional needs to acknowledge

90 Chapter 5 Spirituality
his or her own spiritual background to understand another individual's values and beliefs. Healthcare professionals also need to take the time to care for themselves so they will have the energy to give to others. Spiritual self-care measures may include time with family and friends, contemplation, community service, or religious/spiritual practices.

The second prerequisite for spiritual assessment is establishment of a strong relationship with the individual (Anandarajah & Hight, 2001). A patient might feel more open to spiritual discussion if that individual already has a trusting relationship with the healthcare professional.

The last prerequisite for spiritual assessment is appropriate timing of the spiritual discussion (Anandarajah & Hight, 2001). Spiritual discussions could be appropriate especially when discussing a new diagnosis of a chronic illness, ongoing chronic illness or chronic pain, advance directives, or terminal care planning.

A spiritual assessment can be either formal or informal. An informal spiritual assessment involves listening to the patient for spiritual clues regarding his or her spiritual care needs. These spiritual clues could include conversation focused on topics such as a search for meaning, fear of the unknown, hope and hopelessness, or isolation. The HOPE spiritual assessment was developed for healthcare professionals in a routine clinic environment (Anandarajah & Hight, 2001). This assessment focuses on open-ended questions built around the mnemonic of HOPE (BOX 5-1).

McEvoy (2000) developed the BELIEF mnemonic to aid in spiritual assessment in a pediatric setting. However, this mnemonic is also applicable in adult settings (BOX 5-2).

Sometimes, only the presence of the healthcare professional is needed. Other suggested actions include incorporating spirituality into a patient's preventive care (e.g., prayer or walks in nature), using spirituality as an adjunct therapy (e.g., saying the rosary during a treatment), or modifying treatment based on a patient's spiritual preferences, particularly in regard to end-of-life issues (Anandarajah & Hight, 2001).

**BOX 5-1 The HOPE Questions for a Formal Spiritual Assessment in a Medical Interview**

| H: Sources of hope, meaning, comfort, strength, peace, love, and connection |
| O: Organized religion |
| P: Personal spirituality and practices |
| E: Effects on medical care and end-of-life issues |


**BOX 5-2 BELIEF Mnemonic**

| B: Belief system (involvement in spiritual or religious group) |
| E: Ethics or values (important values or ethics) |
| L: Lifestyle (spiritual rituals, dietary restrictions) |
| I: Involvement in a spiritual community (participation in spiritual community activities) |
| E: Education (spiritual instruction, involvement in religious schools) |
| F: Future events (immunization, birth control, abortion, blood transfusions, death) |


In the spiritual care research of Carron and Cumbie (2011), a study participant offered an example of a simple spiritual assessment, based on the relationship between the nurse and individual. An intervention was derived from the following patient assessment:

*If you let that individual really know you're concerned about that condition, whether it's a cold or it's a lifetime thing or whether it is terminal, that individual...*
is going to feel it [Relationship]. When that individual feels it, it’s awfully easy then; that individual becomes open to you. You view the opening . . . you can’t just come across bluntly, but you can maybe, at some time or the other, ask them if they believe in God or if, you don’t want to say “God,” you might say “a higher being” to open the door [Assessment, knowledge of own spiritual base]. A lot of times that’s all it takes and then they will usually come back with, “Yes, I believe.” But then also, you can go further and say, “There is hope; no matter in what you’re dealing with, there’s hope” [Intervention based on relationship and assessment]. (p. 557)

As these examples demonstrate, a spiritual assessment can be performed in a clinical setting. Begin with one question from the HOPE or BELIEF tool, for example, and then expand or branch out with your own ideas to find the center of strength and connection for an individual and/or family.

**Spirituality Measures and Tools**

Several tools are available to measure levels of spirituality in people. These measurement tools are especially useful in spiritual research, but can also be used in a clinical setting. Monod et al. (2011) conducted a systematic review of spirituality instruments and measures. Their literature search found 35 instruments that assessed spirituality in adults. Instruments that focused exclusively on religiosity were excluded. The instruments were classified as general spirituality (N = 22), spiritual well-being (N = 5), spiritual coping (N = 4), and spiritual needs (N = 4). Examples of the spiritual measures identified by Monod et al. (2011) are included in BOXES 5-3, 5-4, 5-5, and 5-6. These measurement scales were validated in many populations, including patients with arthritis, alcoholism, substance abuse, acute or chronic disease, psychiatric problems, cancer, and HIV/AIDS; felony offenders; and geriatric outpatients (Monod et al., 2011). Consequently,

**BOX 5-3 General Spirituality Measures**
- The Spiritual Perspective Scale (Reed, 1986)
- Spirituality Assessment Scale (Howden, 1992)
- The Spirituality Scale (Delaney, 2005)
- The Ironson-Woods Spirituality / Religiousness Index (short form) (Ironson et al., 2002)

**BOX 5-4 Spiritual Well-Being Measures**
- The Functional Assessment of Chronic Illness Therapy—Spiritual Well-Being Scale (FACIT-Sp) (Peterman et al., 2002)
- The Spiritual Well-Being Scale (SWBS) (Ellison, 1983)
- JAREL Spiritual Well-Being Scale (Hungelmann, Kenkel-Rossi, Klassen, & Stollwerck, 1989)
- The Spirituality Index of Well-Being (SIWB) (Daaleman & Frey, 2004)

**BOX 5-5 Spiritual Coping Measures**
- A Semi-Structured Clinical Interview for Assessment of Spirituality and Religious Coping for Use in Psychiatric Research: Interview Based (Mohr, Gillieron, Borras, Brandt, & Huguelet, 2007)
- The Spiritual Strategies Scale (Nelson-Becker, 2005)

**BOX 5-6 Spiritual Needs Measures**
- Spiritual Needs Inventory (Hermann, 2006)
- The Spiritual Interests Related to Illness Tool (Spirit) (Taylor, 2006)
many of the tools are applicable to chronic illness. The reader is encouraged to read more about specific tools of interest. Spirituality tools can be used to further assess the relationships between spirituality or spiritual well-being and outcomes such as quality of life (Monod et al., 2011).

The Spiritual Well-Being Scale (SWBS) and the Functional Assessment of Chronic Illness Therapy—Spiritual Well-Being Scale (FACIT-Sp) are among the most commonly used spiritual measurement tools in research (Monod et al., 2011). The SWBS, which was developed in 1982 by Paloutzian and Ellison, is one of the oldest spiritual measurement tools. This self-report scale measures spiritual well-being with two subscales: (1) religious well-being or relationship to God and (2) existential well-being, which is a measure of finding purpose and satisfaction with life. The SWBS has been criticized for its emphasis on a more evangelical Protestant perspective of spiritual well-being because of questions that focus on an individual’s relationship with God (Peterman et al., 2002).

Peterman et al. (2002) developed the FACIT-Sp in response to a need for a measure of spiritual well-being that broadly interprets spirituality. These authors noted that their scale was designed for people who considered themselves spiritual, but not religious. The tool consists of two subscales: (1) faith and (2) meaning/peace. There are no references in the scale to God or the use of a specific religious practice such as prayer. Instead, the FACIT-Sp focuses on spiritual well-being as a search for meaning, peace, and purpose in life, as well as the relationship between illness and an individual’s spiritual beliefs. The FACIT-Sp includes statements about the value of faith or spiritual beliefs, purposefulness of life, having a sense of peace, and knowing that everything will happen for the best within the illness experience.

All of these spirituality instruments and measures have limitations. Monod et al. (2011) identified limited data on the psychometric properties of most of the reviewed instruments. Also, test–retest reliability data were limited for the instruments. In addition, Monod et al. (2011) noted that while some scales measure spiritual well-being, there are few scales that measure spiritual distress; as these authors noted, the absence of spiritual well-being is not necessarily equivalent to spiritual distress. In conclusion, the range of spiritual instruments indicates the interest in measures of spirituality and health.

### Nursing Spiritual Interventions

Spiritual care interventions in chronic illness are based on knowledge gained through theory, historical perspectives, assessment, and measurement. O’Brien (2014) proposed a theology of caring to ground spiritual nursing care and interventions. According to this author, the essential components of spiritual care are being, listening, and touch. The actions between a nurse and individual can reflect the spiritual dimension of the nurse–patient relationship. The nurse could be present with an individual, actively listening, and then responding to thoughts of the individual with either physical or verbal touch through a word of support or comfort (O’Brien, 2014).

Knowledge is needed regarding spiritual care interventions by nurses and nurse practitioners. Grant (2004) examined the spiritual practices of 299 nurses in a southwestern U.S. state teaching university hospital. The five spiritual therapies most commonly used by nurses were holding a patient’s hand (92%), listening (92%), laughter (84%), prayer (71%), and being present with a patient (62%). Spiritual counseling ranked 11th on the list (29%), and scripture reading was 12th (26%). The spiritual interventions used least often were biofeedback (8%), acupuncture (7%), chanting (4%), fasting (4%), and repatterning (2%).

The study also identified situations in which nurses thought spiritual interventions could be beneficial. The five most frequently cited situations were a patient explicitly requesting spiritual support (98%), a patient who is about to die (96%), grieving (93%), a patient or family who receives bad news...
(93%), and crying (86%). Other situations in which spiritual interventions could be useful, according to the nurses, include a patient who often prays or seems close to God (81%), a patient who is a member of a church (71%), a patient who is alienated from friends and family (67%), a patient who is angry at God (65%), and a patient who is experiencing physical pain (46%). Grant (2004) reported that nurses believed spirituality could be beneficial; however, the results of the study also suggested nurses were unsure which spiritual therapies to use and when to use them. It was suggested by the researcher that more research was needed in spiritual nursing care.

Quinn Griffin, Salman, Lee, Seo, & Fitzpatrick (2008) examined spiritual practices among 84 individuals with and without heart failure. The authors designed a religious and spiritual interventions checklist for the study. The heart failure group consisted of 30 men and 14 women, and the nonheart failure group consisted of 7 men and 33 women. The participants were older than age 65, with the majority between 65 and 75 years of age. The results indicated that participating in family activities, helping others, and recalling positive thoughts were the religious and spiritual interventions used the most by the total sample and by each subgroup. Praying alone and going to a house of worship or quiet place were also used by a majority of the participants in both groups. This study further adds to the body of knowledge regarding spiritual practices of older adults, many of whom live with chronic illnesses.

Carron and Cumbie (2011) identified spiritual nursing care perceptions of older adults (aged 65 or older) (N = 5) in their study of spirituality in primary care. The older adults stated that spiritual care by nurses included a kind and caring attitude on the part of nurses. One adult participant stated: “If you’re kind and considerate and helping an individual, what more spiritual could you be?” (p. 555). Another adult participant supported this view with his remarks:

- It’s the sense of caring and sense of being welcome; what that does is cause a patient to feel better about the environment, feel better about himself, and help with the potential practices that are going to take place. Now all of that . . . will find [its way] into the spirit and improve spiritual well-being, I believe. And I believe that a smile costs nothing. (pp. 555–556)

All of these studies confirm Grant’s (2004) assertion that research needs to clarify which spiritual care interventions are appropriate and when they should be used in practice. In addition, the development of tools to measure nurses’ spiritual and/or religious care interventions and intentions are needed. In other words, are nurses measuring what needs to be measured?

The time needed to implement spiritual interventions in practice by clinicians is also a critical factor in their development and use.

A randomized controlled trial (RCT) examined the effectiveness of a home-based video and workbook encouraging spiritual coping in helping older adults manage chronic illness (McCauley, Haaz, Tarpley, Koenig, & Bartlett, 2011). One hundred adults, of whom 62% were female, and with an average of three chronic illnesses, were randomized into two groups. The most common chronic illnesses were hypertension (74%), arthritis (54.5%), diabetes (41.4%), and heart disease (27.3%). The spiritual intervention video consisted of stories of spiritual coping told by adults from various spiritual backgrounds. The workbook supplemented the video themes of (1) trusting in the care of a higher being, (2) cleaning “house” of destructive habits, (3) giving thanks for life’s blessings, (4) helping others or finding life’s purpose, and (5) asking for help or social and spiritual support. The control group received an educational intervention focused on standard care educational themes, including weight, diet, smoking, blood pressure, and activity. The results indicated that energy levels increased significantly in the spiritual intervention group and decreased in the educational intervention group. The researchers concluded that their spiritual intervention was not offensive, required no additional clinical time, and produced increased energy in the patients.
The authors noted that fatigue could be an indicator of depression. They also recommended incorporating a spiritual history into the patient assessment and further suggested that patients explore how to incorporate their beliefs into their healthcare management.

Nursing interventions can also involve care of the inner spirit of the individual being cared for, as well as the healer or nurse. Nurses need to be aware that each individual manifests his or her own spirituality in unique ways (Burkhardt & Nagai-Jacobson, 2009). Interventions tending to the spirit can include touch, such as holding hands; supporting significant individual relationships through family, friends, spiritual groups, pictures, artwork, or pet visits; and supporting spiritual rituals such as prayer, meditation, mindfulness, presence, and awareness (Burkhardt & Nagai-Jacobson, 2009).

Spiritual interventions do not have to be difficult, time consuming, or involve a particular religious domain. As an example, Treolar (2000) described the use of a spiritual intervention in an individual encounter with a patient suffering from metastatic lung cancer. Treolar noticed a Bible in the room and asked the woman if she had a religious faith that was important to her. Faith was important to the woman. Treolar offered to pray with the patient, and she accepted. Treolar wrote, “I began to pray for comfort and strength for her and her family, for wisdom for her and the health care staff, and for future decisions about treatment” (p. 283). According to Treolar, the intervention took 5 minutes during an IV infusion. This author concluded that “Spiritual care can be integrated into everyday interactions with patients, providing that one is sensitive to spiritual cues” (p. 284).

A sample of 123 nurses reported on spiritual interventions that they deemed effective with patients (Delgado, 2015). The nurses were asked to identify spiritual interventions they had used from a prepared list of 14 interventions found in the literature. The participants were Roman or Orthodox Catholic (42.3%), Protestant (45.5%), Jewish (4.1%), and agnostic or atheist (2.4%). The most effective spiritual interventions reported by the participants were listening to a patient (88.0%), listening to a patient’s concerns (78.6%), assessing spiritual needs or asking about spiritual needs (73.5%), providing physical contact for support such as holding hands and hugging (67.5%), or contacting a spiritual advisor for the patient (61.5%).

The spiritual interventions deemed least effective by the participants were providing spiritual materials for practice or ritual (17.1%), providing spiritual reading material (19.7%), contacting a family member or friend about the patient’s spiritual needs (30.8%), meditating or praying with the patient (34.2%), and meditating or praying for the patient without the patient being aware (35.9%). Delgado concluded that nurses reported that nonreligious spiritual practices such as listening were more effective for their patients.

### Nursing Education in Spiritual Care

Nursing education in spiritual care is recommended as essential by the American Association of Colleges of Nursing (AACN). In their document *The essentials of baccalaureate education for professional nursing practice*, the AACN (2008) reported that, because of the increasing globalization and diversity of the U.S. population, nurses need to have an understanding of various cultures to provide culturally appropriate nursing care. In addition, the AACN noted that nurses need to practice from a holistic framework, which includes caring for the body, mind, and spirit. Essential VII: Clinical prevention and population health recommends that a baccalaureate nursing graduate should be able to “assess health/illness beliefs, values, attitudes, and practices of individuals, families, groups, communities, and populations” (p. 24).

Nursing education interventions should enhance students’ abilities to provide spiritual care. Blesch (2015) suggests using simulation
scenarios to teach spiritual care. Blesch developed a simulation scenario using nursing students as both patients and nurses to help students learn to respond to a spiritual crisis when a patient is experiencing spiritual distress. Her simulation model uses the SBAR communication model whereby the students consider the following categories: current situation, patient's background, assessment, and recommendations. Blesch notes that her simulation method could be adapted to various situations that might not be immediately available in a clinical site. Strand, Carlsen, and Tveit (2016) reported on an intervention to help nursing students in Norway gain confidence in providing spiritual care to patients. The intervention consisted of a teaching session with a faculty member and a hospital deacon with students and clinical nurse mentors describing spiritual care, talking with patients about spiritual issues, and giving examples of potential spiritual care questions. The students met with clinical mentors and discussed their experiences. The authors reported that, with the learning model intervention, the students gained confidence and knowledge for providing spiritual care to patients.

Beckman, Boxley-Harges, Bruick-Sorge, and Salmon (2007) proposed learning activities that nurse educators or clinical nurse managers could enhance nurses’ or students’ sense of their own spirituality, which could then influence the spiritual care of their patients. The learning activities were based on the Neuman Systems Model whereby spirituality is a dimension in all parts of people including their physical, psychological, sociocultural, and developmental aspects. The learning activities included: (a) exploring one's spirituality, (b) end-of-life-issues, (c) grief and loss, (d) living with chronic illness, and (e) spiritual assessment of the patient. Sample activities include writing an epitaph, imagining having a terminal illness with only a few weeks left to live, examining the losses associated with a chronic illness, and asking what brings joy to a patient’s life.

### Spirituality and Research

Research suggests that an individual’s spirituality influences health outcomes in many chronic illnesses. This section addresses the role of spirituality research and provides examples of spirituality as a health outcome in well-being and several chronic illnesses.

### Well-Being

Well-being relates to life satisfaction, happiness, hopefulness, and morale, as well as finding purpose and meaning in life (Koenig et al., 2012). Self-rated health is a strong predictor of well-being, according to recent research. Religion and spirituality can influence well-being through direct effects such as beliefs and activities or indirectly through psychosocial effects. In a review of 224 quantitative studies, Koenig et al. (2012) reported that 78% found a positive relationship between religion and well-being.

### Dementia

Dementia and its most common form, Alzheimer's disease, is an increasingly prevalent chronic illness. According to the Alzheimer's Association (2016), 5.4 million Americans have the disorder. This number is expected to increase to 7.1 million by 2025. Ennis and Kazer (2013) performed an integrative review of eight studies examining spiritual nursing interventions in older adults with dementia. Ennis and Kazer suggest that a spiritual assessment of the patient be conducted followed by spiritual nursing interventions. The most studied interventions were rituals and music. Rituals such as praying help dementia patients connect to their past memories. Music also had the ability to promote comfort from the memory of certain songs as well as other rituals. Other spiritual interventions include listening, animal therapy, family support, kindness, and relaxation therapy.
**Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome**

Research suggests spirituality is supportive to people living with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). An illness such as HIV/AIDS can lead individuals and their families/significant others to question the meaning and purpose of life as well as their relationship to God or others (Cotton et al., 2006). One study examined the role of spirituality in 450 individuals—86% male, 55% minorities, mean age 43.3 years—with a mean length of HIV diagnosis of 8.4 years. Factors associated with increased spirituality and religion included religious affiliation, African American ethnicity, lower alcohol use, higher self-esteem, greater optimism, higher life satisfaction, and lower overall functioning. On the meaning/peace and faith subscales of the FACIT-Sp (Expanded Version), 94% of the participants found some sense of purpose in their life, 88% found some comfort in their faith, and 75% reported a stronger faith as a result of their illness. Clinical parameters such as viral counts were not generally related to spirituality. The participants also used positive coping strategies such as seeking a connection to God more often than negative coping strategies such as feeling abandoned by God.

Scarinci, Quinn Griffin, Grogoriu, and Fitzpatrick (2009) examined spiritual well-being and spiritual practices in a sample of 83 HIV-infected women (62.7% African American, 75.9% single, and 86.7% Christian). The average time since HIV diagnosis was 10.88 years. The most commonly used spiritual practices included praying alone (51.81%), helping others (37.35%), and exercise (36.14%). The women also had a high level of spiritual well-being that was related to spiritual practices. The authors suggest their results continue to support the positive link between spirituality and health.

**Heart Failure**

Spirituality can help in the management of chronic heart failure. Heart failure affects 5.7 million individuals in the United States (CDC, 2016). Bekelman et al. (2007) examined the relationships between spiritual well-being and depression in 60 people aged 60 and older with New York Heart Association Class II–IV heart failure. The mean age of the study participants was 75 years, and 22% of the sample was female. Spiritual well-being was measured with the FACIT-Sp (Peterman et al., 2002) and depression with the Geriatric Depression Scale—Short Form (GDS-SF) (Yesavage & Sheikh, 1986). The meaning/peace subscale of the FACIT-Sp was significantly associated with lower depression scores ($r_2 = -.57, p < .001$). The faith subscale of the FACIT-Sp was also significantly associated with lower depression scores ($r_2 = -.38, p < .01$). The results suggested that increased levels of spiritual well-being could help mitigate the depression that often accompanies chronic heart failure as well as improve quality of life. Bekelman and colleagues (2007) also suggested having a sense of meaning and peace in one's life could help the individual transcend the limitations and challenges associated with chronic illness.

**Depression**

Many studies have explored the link between depression and spirituality. Koenig et al. (2012) examined 124 studies of depression and spirituality. They reported that 65% of these studies noted inverse relationships between religion and depression. Examples of research focusing on depression and spirituality in chronic illness are described in this section.

Payman and Ryburn (2010) found that intrinsic religiosity significantly predicted depression scores at 24 months follow-up in 94 patients (71% women, mean age 76 years) diagnosed with geriatric major depression. "Intrinsic religiosity" referred to motivation from religious beliefs. The
authors proposed that persons with a high level of intrinsic religiosity might hide depression because their spiritual beliefs would encourage them to appear to be happy. Conversely, people with religious beliefs might be more truthful in responses, so the results might, in fact, be accurate. Regardless of the mechanism involved, the authors recommended that use of religion be considered to support older adults as they encountered the losses associated with aging.

The second research study is an example of an investigation into spirituality and depression showing mixed results. Baetz, Bowen, Jones, and Koru-Sengul (2006) analyzed data from the 2002 Canadian Community Health Survey of approximately 37,000 community-dwelling Canadians aged 15 and older to examine relationships between spirituality and psychiatric disorders; their goal was to determine if spirituality had a protective effect. Participants in the survey were asked if spiritual values were important in their lives, and if spiritual values provided a sense of meaning, strength, and understanding in life. Frequency of worship was also assessed. More frequent worship attendance was associated with less risk for depression and other psychiatric conditions (adjusted odds ratio: 0.87–0.93; 95% confidence interval: 0.82–0.97). In this study, higher spiritual values were associated with greater risk for depression, mania, and social phobia (adjusted odds ratio: 1.06–1.21; 95% confidence interval: 0.99–1.32). The authors suggested that worship attendance might be protective against depressive and other related disorders, while people with depression might attend services less often due to fatigue and the low energy associated with depressive disorders. The authors suggested that the association of high levels of spiritual values with depression and other psychiatric disorders might be the result of depression, mania, or social phobia leading people to seek answers through spiritual values of meaning, strength, and understanding. Spiritual values might also help people grow and learn from their psychiatric illnesses.

Koenig and colleagues (2012) suggest that the lack of treatment effects in some studies involving spirituality and depression could be the result of the study design, scoring error, or measurement tools that are not able to adequately measure the topic of interest. In addition, failure to account for confounding factors might affect the outcomes. Finally, these authors suggest that more information is needed on the effects of spirituality and depression, including factors such as the type of depression, the kind of religion or spirituality used in the study, and the characteristics of the individual or situation used in the study.

**Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus**

The prevalence of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is increasing in the United States. The CDC (2016) reported that 29.1 million people—one out of every 11 persons in the United States—had diabetes in 2014, with T2DM accounting for 90% to 95% of all cases of diabetes. Self-management practices, such as diet, exercise, and blood glucose monitoring, are important to help control the condition and avoid complications of T2DM (CDC, 2016).

Spirituality can be a valuable coping resource for people living with T2DM. Utz et al. (2006) examined self-management practices among 73 African Americans living with type 2 diabetes. The sample consisted of 42 women and 31 men, with a mean age of 59.8 years. Spirituality was a source of support for many of the participants, although some participants stated that spirituality did not have a role in their self-management practices. Spiritual practices that supported diabetes self-management included prayer for support and strength to care for self, prayer for help with coping with the illness, and social support through church activities. The study participants also believed that God gave knowledge to the healthcare professionals who cared for them. Utz et al. (2006) suggested that healthcare professionals be supportive of individuals who use spiritual support for coping with their illness.

Similarly, Polzer and Miles (2007) found that spirituality was an important factor that...
influenced self-management in a sample of 29 African American men and women with T2DM aged 40–75. Grounded theory was used to analyze participant interviews. The results indicated that participants’ relationship with God was expressed through three themes of relationship and responsibility. In the first theme, God was in the background with a supporting role in T2DM self-management; the individuals’ spirituality taught them that they should care for themselves out of respect for God’s gift of being created in the divine image. The second theme of relationship and responsibility revealed God to be in the forefront and the individual with T2DM in the background. Participants who believed in this type of God relationship saw God as in charge. They believed that if God disapproved of their self-management program, there could be consequences for the individual with T2DM. In the third thematic group, God was seen as healer. Participants in this group believed that God could heal them; as a result, T2DM self-management was not necessary. Polzer and Miles (2007) noted there were only two participants in the third group, so no conclusions could be drawn. These authors suggested that a spiritual assessment can identify people living with T2DM who could benefit from incorporation of spiritual beliefs and practices into their plan of care.

Caregivers

No discussion of spirituality outcomes would be complete without mentioning the role of spiritual support for caregivers of people with chronic illness. When concern focuses only on the individual with chronic illness, the needs of the caregiver—usually a family member—are often overlooked.

Yeh and Bull (2009) examined the role of spiritual well-being and mental health in a convenience sample of 50 family caregivers of older people with heart failure. The caregivers had a mean age of 60.3 years and 70% were women and 30% men. Family caregivers represented 98% of the caregivers. The mean age of the patients with heart failure was 76.47 years, and 79% were women. The tool used for measuring spiritual well-being was the JAREL Spiritual Well-Being Scale (Hungetmann, Kenkel-Rossi, Klassen, & Stoltenwerk, 1996). Coping strategies of caregivers were measured with the Carers’ Assessments of Managing Index (CAMI) (Nolan, Keady, & Grant, 1995). The mental health of the caregivers was measured with the Symptom Questionnaire (Kellner, 1987).

The results of this study indicated high levels of spiritual well-being among the caregivers on the three subscales of faith/belief, life/self-responsibility, and life satisfaction/self-actualization. The caregivers also had high levels of coping skills on the three subscales of problem solving and coping, alternative perception of events, and dealing with stress symptoms. The mean scores on the Symptom Questionnaire revealed that the caregivers were moderately anxious, although scores for depression, somatic symptoms, and hostility were in the normal range. However, some caregivers scored in the severe range of anxiety (28%), had above-average scores for depression (22%), and evidenced increased somatic symptoms (16%). Spiritual well-being demonstrated a significant inverse relationship with mental health scores (r = –0.055, p = 0.000). The total coping scores also had a significant inverse relationship with the total negative mental health scores (r = –0.44, p = 0.001).

In conclusion, higher levels of spiritual well-being were associated with better caregiver mental health in the Yeh and Bull (2009) study. The coping strategies of problem solving and reappraisal of events were also associated with better mental health of caregivers. This study suggested that attending to the spiritual needs of caregivers was important in helping them cope with the burden of chronic illness.

Outcomes

Spirituality can be an important adjunct therapy in caring for persons with chronic illness. Research has demonstrated the positive effects
Healthcare professionals also need to assess their own beliefs about the use of spiritual practices in conjunction with conventional allopathic medicine.

Chronic illness is increasing in the United States. Older Americans, in particular, are susceptible to one or more chronic, lifelong illnesses. Assessing the spiritual needs of people living with chronic illness will help healthcare professionals use an individual's spiritual beliefs as a powerful, supportive, coping tool (BOX 5-7). The strength that comes from faith may enable people with chronic illness to find purpose and meaning within the lived experience of their illness.

The current state of the science about spirituality demonstrates that more research needs to be conducted, particularly in the areas of assessment, implementation, and outcomes.
CASE STUDY 5-1 Heart failure and spiritual assessment

Linda Lucero is an 89-year-old white woman who presents for a 2-month check-up for her end-stage heart failure. She is accompanied by her 89-year-old husband Fred. The couple live in their own home, and Fred is still driving his car. The couple live in the country 10 miles from the nearest city and shopping facilities. Linda is able to bathe, dress, eat, and toilet herself. She is dependent on Fred for cooking, laundry, and cleaning. Linda and Fred mention that they want to stay in their own home at present, but it is becoming more difficult to meet their needs. They mention that their church has been very supportive of their needs.

Discussion Questions
1. How would you perform a spiritual assessment of Linda?
2. How would you assess the role of Linda’s church?
3. What spiritual interventions would you suggest for Linda and Fred? Why?
4. If you are not comfortable performing a spiritual assessment, what action would help you feel more comfortable?

CASE STUDY 5-2 Alzheimer’s and using rituals

Margaret Palmer is a 75-year-old woman with late-stage Alzheimer’s disease who presents for a 3-month check-up. She is on multiple medications for hypertension, type 2 diabetes, and Alzheimer’s disease. Margaret is accompanied by her 54-year-old daughter Teresa with whom she lives. Teresa states that her biggest problem in caring for her mother is the agitation that her mother develops in the evening. From a previous spiritual assessment, you are aware that Margaret was formerly an active member of her church choir.

1. What is the role of spiritual interventions such as rituals in individuals with Alzheimer’s and other forms of dementia?
2. What spiritual interventions could you suggest that incorporate prayer and music?
3. What is your past experience in providing spiritual care to individuals with Alzheimer’s disease and other forms of dementia?

Evidence-Based Practice Box

Implementing spiritual interventions in patients with chronic illness can be challenging for health care professionals. Hooker et al. (2017) conducted a 12-week intervention to examine the effectiveness of a psychospiritual intervention for improving quality of life (QOL) in heart failure (HF) patients. A total baseline sample of 33 adults aged 18 and older with an HF diagnosis and English speaking were recruited from two outpatient HF clinics. The sample was 81.8% male with a mean age of 61.6 ± 9.5 years. The majority (57.6%) were Class II on the New York Heart Association Functional Classification system for HF. The intervention addressed the following factors: personal resources, optimism and

(continues)
Evidence-Based Practice Box (continued)

care, social and spiritual support, stressors and coping, conflict, relaxation, mindfulness training, grief and loss, lifestyle changes, and gratitude. Each weekly module consisted of educational information, questions, and behavioral activities. Research staff contacted the participants each week to answer questions and encourage completion of the study. About 60% of participants completed all modules with 21 participants completing the interview at the end of the study.

The results found that 81.1% of participants believed spirituality should be included in an HF intervention, although results were mixed as to the effectiveness of the intervention in helping people live with HF. Most participants (85.7%) thought the intervention was beneficial, although only eight participants felt their QOL improved. Surveys completed by participants found increased QOL, decreased depressive symptoms, and less searching for life meaning. Hooker et al. concluded that a psychospiritual intervention may help improve QOL in patients with HF.


Study Questions

1. What do opinion surveys indicate about the importance of spirituality to individuals?
2. How does spirituality help an individual manage stressful situations?
3. How can spirituality affect health in both a positive and negative manner?
4. How would you define spirituality?
5. How is spirituality integrated into nursing theory?
6. What are five spiritual interventions for use in patients with chronic illness?
7. How can spiritual care be taught in nursing education programs?
8. How would you perform a spiritual assessment of an individual with chronic illness?
9. What is the role of spirituality in health care in the future? Will it increase or decrease?

References

References


Chapter 5 Spirituality


